

# The Teachers College Journal

Volume II

January, 1931

Number 3

## CONTENTS

Personality Traits . . . . .	E. S. Bogardus	65
The Human Shakespeare of the Sonnets . . . . .	Leslie H. Meeks	71
Teacher Supply in Indiana . . . . .	Robert K. Deuricks	73
Editorial . . . . .		76
Placement Tests in English for Two-Year Students . . . . .	Edward M. Gifford	77
Can the Ability to Measure Music be Measured Objectively? . . . . .	Louell M. Tilson	79
The Financial Control of Extra-Curricular Activities . . . . .	H. E. Moore	83
How College Freshmen Spend Their Time and Its Relation to Failure in the Case of Twenty- Five Members of the Class . . . . .	Frank A. Beu	87
Factors in School Attendance . . . . .	Loris C. Halberstadt	91
Around the Reading Table . . . . .		95

Division of Research

Indiana State Teachers College

Terre Haute, Indiana



# THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME II

JANUARY, 1931

NUMBER 3

## Personality Traits

F. S. Bogardus  
Dean of the Faculty  
Indiana State Teachers College

(The following article was read by Dean Bogardus before the faculty meeting of the Indiana State Teachers College, October 14, 1930.)

About a year ago the Indiana State Teachers College launched out on an effort to do something systematic by way of personality studies. In doing this it was simply following the example of a good many other institutions that are struggling with the same problem. Up to this time it cannot be said that we have accomplished much, but we are learning by our experience. Whatever may be the outcome of the effort, we will feel sure that the effort was justified by the need that existed. Not only in this institution, but in most others devoted to education, there has been an extraordinary emphasis placed upon intellectual ability and achievement. We have largely confined our efforts to the regular academic interests, feeling that we have done our duty when we have made certain that the students have accomplished the assigned tasks in the fields of the various academic studies. This was in the face of the very obvious fact, known to all school officials in supervisory

positions, that the success of teachers depends very largely upon their personality traits. On this side of the problem, the personality side, we did nothing in any organized fashion. True it is that the dean of men and the dean of women did what they could to meet the need for this service, but their efforts were necessarily scattering and individual. There was no combined effort on the part of the whole faculty to solve the problem.

My attention was called to the situation in emphatic fashion by the case of a student who graduated from this institution at the top of his class, a young man who gave every promise of a brilliant future in the field of scholarship. But this young man was poor, he could not secure a position within the secluded shades of some great university where he could pursue research undisturbed by the noisy world. He had to teach; he had to earn his own living; his four years of study here were supposed to prepare him so that he could teach with at least moderate success. This young man secured a



position in a high school in one of our cities of about five thousand population. He made a complete failure and was notified before the end of the school year that he could not return. I learned of his impending catastrophe and made some effort to save him, but it was a hopeless case. The superintendent told me, "He does not know how to deal with pupils and he does not know how to meet parents. He does foolish things in the classroom. He knows his subject, but is socially impossible."

I knew well a woman who was teaching in the same high school faculty at that time, one who graduated from this institution about twelve years ago. She is sensible, capable, and broadly human in her sympathies. She said, "When this young man came to us we teachers tried to help him, but he seemed to think that he knew it all. We had a teachers' club, a social organization, and we invited him to attend its meetings. He replied that he had no time for such things. He secluded himself from the rest of us. The people in the town began to regard him as queer, and we found that we could not help him."

That young man made a failure in his first effort to teach after four years of preparation. There was nothing wrong with him except that he had never learned how to meet and deal with people. His failure was a severe blow to the prestige of the State Teachers College in that community, and I do not know whether it has yet recovered from it. As for the young man, there was nothing for him to do but go on to college for graduate work; a thing

he managed to do by making the greatest efforts and sacrifices.

I believe I could list, offhand, about a dozen other cases of the same kind—cases in which the traits of personality were the determining factor. Here was the case of Miss A, a diminutive, wren-like creature, gentle, unimpressive in every way but with a good mind and a great desire to be helpful to somebody. She represented a family that had seen better days. At the time she entered this institution as a graduate of a good high school, the father was dead. The mother, this young lady, and a younger sister constituted the family. They had enough to live on but that was about all. Miss A undertook to prepare for high school teaching. It would seem as if it would take only about five minutes of contact with her for anyone to see that she was not adapted, either in body or in personality traits, to high school work. If she had any chance for successful teaching, it would be in the lower grades or the kindergarten and not in the high school where decision, firmness, and strong qualities of leadership are necessary in order to impress our "flaming youth." Our boys and girls of the high school are strong, aggressive, determined, unafraid; it takes something more than the sweet, gentle timidity of a creature like Miss A in order to lead them.

Miss A started on her work in the academic and professional department, and did it all well. Her practice in the high school was not successful. The time came for her to find a position as a teacher. It was necessary that she find a position. The money was about gone. The



hope of the family lay in her finding a position. She applied through our placement bureau and a half dozen other agencies, and she asked for high school positions. Three different superintendents who were here in this institution at different times told me personally that they would not think of taking her into a high school, that she didn't have the qualities needed in dealing with children of high school age. She did not secure a position. So far as the work she did here leading to a position in which she could earn a living was concerned, it was a complete failure. What became of her and what became of the family I do not know, but I never think about the case without a twinge of conscience. Somebody should have taken that case in hand, should have told that young lady that she could not teach in high school, that she was not fitted for it, and should have advised her to take up some other line of teaching or another altogether different occupation. The outstanding fact is that we let the affair roll forward to its tragic conclusion and did not do a thing about it.

Now it would not have required an elaborate organization of specialists to do the thing that was needed in that case, but we did nothing. I want to say that I take my full share of blame for this lamentable failure to meet a perfectly tangible demand, and I am not blaming anybody else in particular. We know and have known all along that academic preparation, professional training, experience, and traits of personality all go into the make-up of a successful teacher. We have done the best we could

and professional training. We have furnished a little experience by way of practice-work, but we have not done much with this other matter—the elements of personality which play so large a part in determining the success of a teacher. The time has come, however, for us to do something about it. These are the considerations that led to the initiation here of the movement for a systematic effort to get at the problem of personal qualities in our students.

In some institutions the personnel work is in the hands of a trained specialist. He is assisted by anywhere from one to a dozen helpers. Everything is carefully and systematically done. As many as a dozen lines of activity are centered in his office, including admission, registration, poor scholarship, placement, and loan funds. Standardized tests are used. The variety, completeness, and scientific procedure of such an office are simply bewildering to the layman.

Here, the Indiana State Teachers College has not developed a formidable organization of this kind. We have preferred to develop the desired type of work through the agency of the faculty and of the deans because the teachers are the people who really have an opportunity to come into actual, living contact with the students and to form some judgments regarding the personal qualities of these students. Who could be better qualified to carry out the work of diagnosis and remedial action than the deans? They are in a peculiarly confidential relation with the students, and they possess the personality traits that belong to an ideal personnel officer. We are fortunate in

this fact. Yet it is certain that in the course of time the work will become so highly specialized and so diversified that it will be necessary to establish a more elaborate system. Now, we are making only a beginning.

I have been asked several times, "Just what in detail do you propose to do? How are you going to get at this problem?" Let me make a brief statement on that point.

First, we base the whole structure on the judgment of the teacher because the teacher is in the strategic position. He meets the student in an actual, genuine, life contact and can see him perform under the stress of known school conditions. It is true that a teacher may feel when he comes to marking the personality rating sheet<sup>1</sup> at the end of the term that he has no definite impression regarding certain of the qualities that are listed. In this case he would, of course, put down no mark. Whatever mark goes on these sheets should represent a genuine, rather definite, clear-cut impression on the part of the teacher. It is a matter of the teacher's opinion. Of course, in a certain sense, this is not a scientific procedure; and we do not claim that it is; but when we get to dealing with intangible elements of personality, we cannot hope to be quantitatively exact. It might thus come about that only two or three teachers of any student during a given term would care to record a judgment regarding "enthusiasm," or "resourcefulness," or "social adaptability," yet these marks

will be highly significant. Whatever value the scheme might have would be completely lost if any teacher thought that he *must* record a mark for each one of the seven items, and, hence, should proceed in a mechanical or careless fashion to put down marks for all the seven qualities without definite impressions behind the marks.

Second, the sheets after being marked by the teachers are turned over to the Division of Research in which summaries are made and entered, term by term, on the reverse side of the psychological examination cards. A study of these numerical summaries will enable us to throw the cards into groups of high, middle, and low. The next step is to take the cards of the low group and sort them by classes—freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior.

Third, the cards of the "low" senior group, those who are deficient in desirable qualities to a very marked degree, are then handed to the dean of men and the dean of women who will begin a study of these cases. The problem as it presents itself to the dean of men and the dean of women is about as follows, "What is the cause of this deficiency that has impressed the teachers of this student?" and "What can be done about it?" There are a good many possible answers. It may be that the dean will wish to send the student to our medical officer for a special physical examination. It may be that defective social environment is responsible and the wise counsel and guidance of the dean may show the student what his trouble is and how to remedy it. It may be that it is a matter of speech or personal appear-

<sup>1</sup>See sample of rating sheet as printed at end of article.

ance that is causing the trouble. In most cases, personal conference with the dean will probably be as effective as anything that can be devised. I can imagine cases in which the friendly counsel of the dean may have to be backed up by a psychological examination as well as a physical examination; and, in such cases, of course, the student would become a subject of study by our psychologists. At any rate, if the system is faithfully carried out it will be possible for our placement officers to go to the Division of Research at any time and get the combined judgment of from twenty-four to forty-eight teachers on the student's reliability, social adaptability, et cetera. It will also be possible to get a composite judgment at any time during the student's career.

I suppose that the deans will keep some kind of card record that will give a rather compact history of the case, and which will enable the dean to trace the progress of the student as long as he is a subject of study. We probably will find that a certain number of these persons are lacking in desirable qualities to such a degree, or possess undesirable qualities to such a degree, that their trouble seems to be beyond remedy. They are distinctly unfit to go into the schoolroom as teachers. No amount of patient effort, advice, and help will make some people fit to be teachers of young children. If we can detect these persons early in their school career, and be sure that they are beyond the possibility of raising themselves to the desired level, then our duty is perfectly clear. We should advise and insist that they enter upon some other course than the one

that prepares for teaching. This, in general, is the program of activities as I see it.

We have now, (Fall 1930), reached the point at which the cards of certain cases have been handed to our deans. They are now working on these cases. I hope that at some subsequent time the deans will be kind enough to give us a statement of results as they see them and their general impression regarding this system of personality studies, along with reports on some case studies.

You will note up to this point that I have said nothing about scholarship in connection with the elements of personality. I suspect that if long enough and careful enough studies were made it would be demonstrated that there is a correlation between these elements of personality and what we call scholarship, but we have made no progress along that line up to this time. We feel that it is best to restrict our efforts to a relatively narrow field until we either get results that seem to justify the effort or demonstrate conclusively that we are working on the wrong line. The time may come, it probably will, when failures in scholarship will be referred to our directors of personnel work with the thought that scholarship in many cases can be improved with their help; but we do not expect to ask the deans at this time to take up problems of poor scholarship in connection with personality study. Our mid-term report on failing students is built up largely on the theory that a good many other factors besides traits of personality have something to do with poor scholarship. The fact of poor scholarship is regarded as a thing



that is to be explained largely by things that students do or do not do. Whereas the personality report is an effort to get at the personal qualities that determine whether they shall or shall not do these things. At any rate the two lines of action are separate at present. It may be that some kind of combination or coordination of effort will be developed before long by which the whole matter can be thrown under one general system of study.

In closing may I say that we all know that these personal qualities are of tremendous importance in a young person's career as a student and of still greater importance in his success as a teacher. None of us would feel satisfied to take the attitude that we are here only to assign lessons and supervise recitations. Surely teaching in this institution means something much more than that. We are the agents of the state and of the people of Indiana in se-

lecting young men and women to go into their schools and care for their children. We feel that this is a great responsibility and that it reaches far beyond the boundaries of abstract scholarship. We stand uncompromisingly for the very best standards of scholarship. We do not propose to lower standards in this respect. Rather, we wish to make this system of personnel work, or some other one, a supplementary activity, something that will strengthen the scholarship of our students and increase their usefulness as teachers. Another thing—we are not going to be satisfied with collecting great masses of records and then allowing them to rest in "innocuous desuetude" as Grover Cleveland said in another connection. We are seeking tangible and beneficial results from all this effort, we want an outcome that is helpful to our students in a very practical sense.

The following comprises the sheet of explanation of terms used which is given each instructor at the same time the personality rating sheets are handed to him.

#### INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

##### Suggestions as to Terms Used in Personality Rating Sheet

Personal appearance (attractiveness, poise, posture). Has good carriage. Is well groomed. Clothes are neat and suitable, etc.

Enthusiasm (animation, forcefulness, vitality). Manner arouses enthusiasm of others. Speaks with animation. Succeeds in getting others to help in a club or committee—does not do all the work herself. Looks directly at those whom she addresses or meets. Is active in any committee work, club work, et cetera with which she is connected. Is a leader in both work and play. Works or plays with zest. Et cetera.

Trustworthiness (dependability, reliability, seriousness of purpose). Can carry on without direction. Can be relied upon to see the job through. Meets obligations in and out of school. Puts work above personal social affairs. Does more than the minimum requirement. Does not try to bluff. Can live under an honor system. Avoids excuses. Is honest in dealing with herself and others. Et cetera.

Good Judgment (openmindedness, fairness, sincerity). Receives criticism in the right spirit and profits by it. Gives consideration to the opinion of others. Is not hasty in drawing conclusions. Subordinates personal consideration or feeling in her school activities. Does not over-indulge in bridge, social functions. Et cetera. Avoids favoritism.

Resourcefulness (initiative, originality, individuality). Does not usually seek aid

(Continued on Page 94)

## The Human Shakespeare of the Sonnets

Leslie H. Meeks  
Head, Department of English  
Indiana State Teachers College

"This world cryeth shame upon the rakers and scrapers of the universe." Minorities of Saints (1632).

This is the day of "biography boom." The itching curiosity in man's make-up has at last fully expressed itself in his reading tastes. He wants to know the "real facts" about great men, and he rejoices in those biographies from which "nothing is excluded that can give piquancy to the narrative."

In such an age it is a disappointment to many students of literature that Shakespeare left so few clues to his own personality. Writing for the most part in dramatic form, he kept himself deftly hidden behind the scenes. Only in the sonnets and two or three other non-dramatic poems did he offer himself to us in any sense subjectively. And what a dining furor of dispute has arisen over the question as to whether the sonnets are authentically autobiographical or not!<sup>1</sup> Did Shakespeare here "unlock his heart," as Wordsworth affirmed and Browning denied? It is an interesting and half-amusing exercise to follow the commentators and editors as they take sides in this controversy.<sup>2</sup>

Now what, in a labyrinth so puz-

zling, is the modern teacher going to say to his inquiring students about the man Shakespeare as revealed in this particular work? They are sure to ask, at least those who really think about literary problems. The answer, it seems to me, should be in some such terms as those of the paragraphs that follow.

Shakespeare's sonnets are not mere effusions of his artistic imagination, for they possess a tone that is too sincerely personal. Nor are they dramatic like most of his work, for they set forth no clearly connected story. It is true that they are replete with passions that might easily be used as dramatic motives; but what the facts were behind these possible motives, or to what consequent action they led we do not know, nor is it profitable, when the results work so completely at cross purposes, even to guess. At the other extreme, it is a theory equally unsafe—and to some repulsive—to assume that the sonnets are certainly, if a little obscurely, autobiographical. Yet, whatever one thinks about these much disputed questions, one can scarcely fail to see that the sonnets are the sincere utterances of a man of very human qualities.

Love is, of course, the key-note of the whole sequence. It leads on the one hand very close to deplorable depths of immoral mire, and on the

<sup>1</sup>Cross, W. L., "An Outline of Biography, From Plutarch to Strachey." Yale Review, N. S. Vol. XI, October, 1921, p. 155, and passim.

<sup>2</sup>"The sonnets of Shakespeare have a place beside the play of Hamlet for the doubtful honor of being the cause of more perplexity and controversy than any other literary work in the English tongue." Alden, R. M., Preface to the "Sonnets of Shakespeare" (Variorum edition; Philadelphia: Lipincott, p. vii.)

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 337 ff.

other to the purest heights that the Platonic conception ever reached. It does not limit its object to one sex, but extends to both. It is the source at one moment of joy, at another of sadness; now of hope, now of despair; here of inspiration, there of disgust. It is responsible for some of the poet's noblest aspirations and for all, we feel sure, of his degrading thoughts. In sonnet 109 he sings of the purity of love, and in 129, he describes the conflicting effects of evil passion. All this comes out in tones that are persuasively personal yet it is the record of an emotional experience not at all difficult to duplicate in the lives of others. In literature one thinks at once of King Arthur's knights, of certain heroes of the Old Testament, and of a host of other equally striking examples.

But Shakespeare's reflections on and experiences with love lead him into other avenues that penetrate deep into the human heart. In several sonnets he meditates on the question of immortality (e. g., 32, 81, 107). He declares that his memory will not die, believing it will survive along with that of the "lovely boy" to whom he addresses the majority of the sonnets. Nevertheless this hope is both unselfish and modest; for his chief concern is to perpetuate his friend's beauty and virtue, while his opinion of his own poems has nothing of vanity in it. "I'll live in this poor rime," he says in 107. There is something pathetic in this desire of the poet that his friendship might be remembered long after he himself was "hid in death's dateless night." It is a thought that at some time or other strikes a pang to the heart of every man—the thought

that the things of earth, however beautiful, cannot always endure.

Following naturally upon the thought of immortality are the poet's reflections on the brevity of life (e. g., 60), and on the lamentable effects of advancing age (e. g., 73). Again, an unusually personal hint comes out in sonnet 111, in which he bemoans the fact that his public profession subdues his real nature. He seems to believe, for the moment at least, that writing and producing plays keeps him from other activities that he might do better and enjoy more. What man, no matter how much he loves his profession, has not, in a time of weariness and depression, looked towards another's work with something of a sigh? Sonnet 29 is a particularly good instance of this feeling in Shakespeare. Despite limited space, one cannot mention this noble poem without wishing to quote it:

"When in disgrace with Fortune and men's eyes,  
I all alone beweep my outcast state,  
And trouble deaf heaven with my bootless cries,  
And look upon myself and curse my fate,  
Wishing me like to one more rich in hope,  
Featured like him, like him with friends possessed,  
Desiring this man's art, and that man's scope,  
With what I most enjoy contented least,  
Yet in these thoughts myself almost despising,  
Haply I think on thee, and then my state,  
Like to the lark at break of day arising  
From sullen earth, sings hymns at heaven's gate;  
For thy sweet love remembered such wealth brings,  
That then I scorn to change my state with kings."

Thus it would be possible to go on  
(Continued on Page 86)



## Teacher Supply in Indiana

Robert K. Devricks  
Registrar and Director of Studies  
Indiana State Teachers College

Sufficient evidence is now available upon which to base conclusions concerning the relative demands for teachers of the various high school subjects in Indiana. Complete studies have been made of the high school subjects and their combinations for the last five years, 1925-1930. This information has been obtained from the reports of the high school principals of the State to the State Department of Public Instruction. There has been some variation in the method of reporting but without serious effect on the dependability of the data collected.

The data upon which this discussion is based are found in various studies made by the author. The data for 1925-1926 and for 1926-1927 may be found in a master's thesis, "Educational Guidance for College Students," on file at Indiana University. The data for 1927-1930 may be found in a bulletin to be published early in 1931 by the Bureau of Co-operative Research of Indiana University. This bulletin is the product of a committee of the Indiana State Teachers Association of which I. O. Foster, Indiana University, is chairman and George L. Roberts, Purdue University, E. A. Bowman, DePauw University, Harry L. Fitch, Ball State Teachers College, and Robert K. Devricks, Indiana State Teachers College, are the associate members.

No attempt has been made to determine the absolute supply of teachers by giving specific figures concern-

ing the surplus of teachers in the State as a whole or the surplus or shortage in particular subjects and subject combinations in definite numbers. Reports from the various teacher-training institutions of the State show that many of their graduates are unable to obtain positions, which is very good evidence that there is a general surplus. It is not possible for anyone with the data available to predict the supply of high school teachers far enough in advance to warrant the control of the supply of teachers as a group and it is doubtful if it will ever be possible to do so. The importance of these studies has been that they enable the colleges to advise their students of the relative demands for the various subjects and their combinations. Data are available to show whether or not the supply of teachers in the high school subjects is being controlled so that there is a proper balance or, in other words, so that there is the same percentage surplus for each of the high school subjects.

Before giving facts and figures on this point it is important that some highly significant facts be brought out concerning trends in the number of teachers teaching the various subjects. If it is found that there is a decided increase or decrease in the number of teaching positions in a particular subject this fact should be known by those who are attempting to advise teachers in training. No ac-

count has been taken of the fact that the number of high school teachers has increased slightly. The increase is so small that the effect on number of teachers in any one subject would be immaterial.

Several subjects have been taught by practically the same number of teachers during the last five years. There has been a slight increase probably due to an increase in the number of teachers in the State. Among them are those that are included in the state minimum requirements for a high school diploma. This group consists of English, mathematics, social studies, and Latin. There appears to have been no change in the number teaching physics, chemistry, physiology, zoology, agriculture, industrial arts, music, and art.

There has been a marked trend upward in the teaching of biology, geography, home economics, commerce, physical education, and health. The last two show a much greater increase than the others.

The group that is on the downward trend includes French, German, Spanish, and botany. German was dropped almost completely during and after the World War. Last year there were only nineteen teachers of this subject in the State. In 1927-1928 there were forty-nine. When German was removed from the schools there was a great increase in the number of French teachers. During the last five years, however, there has been a marked decline. Comparing French with Latin, last year there were about 1200 Latin teachers and only about 125 French teachers. This condition has had very little influence on teacher-training institu-

tions for the number of students preparing to teach French has almost equalled the number preparing to teach Latin.

This leads to the vital point in this discussion. The question is how nearly is the supply balanced in the subjects for which teachers are being trained. In other words, if one hundred teachers are trained is the proper proportion of English, Latin, and mathematics teachers maintained so that the ratio corresponds to the ratio of the demand for these subjects. The total supply may be very much greater than is necessary but that does not relieve the teacher-training institutions of the responsibility for giving their graduates an equal opportunity.

The table which follows this study gives a list of the subjects most often taught in the high schools of the State. Column 2 gives the average number of teachers who were teaching these subjects during the last five years. Column 3 gives the percentage each subject bears to the total number of teachers teaching all of these subjects. It is necessary to disregard the fact that sometimes teachers teach more than one subject, since subjects are being dealt with and not teachers. In applying these figures to a group of teachers who are preparing for high school teaching, one should consider the number of license majors rather than the number of teachers. In a given institution if teachers are trained in all of these subjects approximately 15.68 per cent should be trained in English, 12.07 per cent in mathematics, 9 per cent in Latin, 1.25 per cent in French, et cetera.

It was found upon comparing the

percentages as they occurred in the schools of the State for the last five years and the percentages as found for the teachers who were trained last year that the institutions were over training in some and under training in others. Column 4 gives the percentages as they were trained last year.

Column 5 gives an index showing whether each of these was over trained (over supplied) last year. For example, 15.68 per cent of the teachers during the five year period were teaching English. Last year, 15.64 per cent of the students in training were preparing in English. This

shows that a proper number were being trained in English. The perfect situation would show an index of 100. Mathematics shows 12.07 per cent of the teachers during the five year period were teaching it and last year 7.99 per cent were being trained. The index is 66.2. This shows that only 66.2 per cent of the proper number is being trained. Further inspection of column 5 shows zoology, chemistry, physiology, French, and Spanish are greatly over trained. On the other hand, several subjects including agriculture, industrial arts, mathematics, and Latin are under trained.

A COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF LICENSES ISSUED IN EACH SUBJECT  
TO THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF TEACHERS TEACHING THE  
SUBJECT THROUGH THE FIVE-YEAR PERIOD

Subjects	Average No. of Teachers during the 5-Yr. Period	Percentage of teachers in each subject during 5-Yr. Period	Percentage of licenses issued in each subject for the year 1928-1929	Index showing whether over or under trained Ratio of Col. 4 to Col. 3
1	2	3	4	5
English	2047	15.68	15.64	100.0
Mathematics	1576	12.07	7.99	66.2
Latin	900	6.89	4.91	71.3
French	121	.92	3.73	405.5
German	24	.18	.33	183.3
Spanish	54	.41	.80	200.0
Social Studies	1652	12.65	16.89	133.5
Science				
Biology	409	3.13	4.87	155.5
Botany	243	1.86	2.46	132.3
Zoology	16	.13	1.61	1238.0
Physics	477	3.63	3.40	93.7
Chemistry	121	.92	3.31	360.0
Physiology	144	1.10	2.98	271.0
Geography	405	3.10	2.41	77.7
Agriculture	297	2.27	.50	22.0
Art	579	4.43	1.61	36.3
Commerce	562	4.30	5.34	124.2
Home Economics	929	7.11	5.60	78.7
Industrial Arts	658	5.04	2.08	41.2
Music	828	6.34	4.44	70.0
Physical Ed.	1012	7.75	5.58	74.5



## TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

Published bi-monthly by the Division of Research, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

J. W. Jones, Director, Division of Research . . . . . Editor

Manuscripts offered for publication from those interested in teacher-training and teachers college problems should be addressed to the Division of Research, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

Subscription rate one dollar fifty cents per year.



### FRANCES MARION STALKER

*Francis Marion Stalker, Professor Emeritus of Education, who served as a member of the Indiana State Teachers College faculty for thirty-seven years, died November 25, 1930 at his home in Terre Haute, Indiana following an illness of several months' duration.*

At the recent memorial services in honor of the memory of Francis Marion Stalker, Professor Emeritus of Education and formerly head of the Department of Education at Indiana State Teachers College, his philosophy of life was said to have been "beautifully and succinctly summarized in his educational creed which he so frequently quoted to his

classes." Professor Stalker was first and always a teacher and his creed should be a help and inspiration to others in the field of teaching. It is:

*"To have and to keep a sane, healthy soul in a sound, healthy body; to think straight; to appreciate beauty in Nature, in the Fine Arts, and in the deeds of men; to act nobly; to work skillfully with the hands as well as with the head; to realize that there is work to be done in the world, —above all to be consumed with a burning desire to do one's share of the world's work—these are the marks of a completely educated man or woman."*

How Professor Stalker looked at the profession of teaching was stated by Dr. R. A. Acher as follows: "He held the teacher's calling in very high esteem. In fact, he considered the teacher as the most important member of society. He regarded the teacher's duty as being more than that of a mere gatherer and dispenser of facts. His constant effort was to interpret facts and make them tell the true story of what life means. His greatest concern was not only to seek the 'summum bonum' of life, but to reveal it to his students and lift them to this level of thinking and living. He was an artist in stimulating and inspiring students and enkindling in them a desire for the higher and better things of life. He accepted the dictum of Jesus that the great duty of life is 'to seek first the kingdom of Heaven and all other things will be added unto you'."

These are things which can be followed by every teacher to his own advantage.

## Placement Tests in English for Two-Year Students

Edward M. Gifford  
Assistant Professor of English  
Indiana State Teachers College

Indiana State Teachers College has acquired an additional consignment of helpful information concerning the entering two-year students of 1930-31. This information indicates, in a general way, the ability of these students to deal effectively with the fundamentals of written and spoken discourse.

As an important part of its program of service, the college wishes to encourage its students in the acquisition of the language skills needed in order to gain an adequate mastery in their fields of major interest. Furthermore, it believes that the work in any course which serves as a tool subject should come as early as possible in the academic experiences of all the students. And in speaking of English as a tool subject, I am referring to the courses in literature as well as in composition, as they have to do with stimulating the students in their development of power in self-expression.

Formerly, the two-year students have not been required to take the placement tests in English fundamentals. But beginning in September, 1930, the entering two-year students along with those on the regular and special college curricula were required to take a diagnostic English test. The results of this examination present some very interesting facts. (1) The average age of the entering two-year group is

18.44 years, based on 111 students, while the average age for the regular and special college students is 18.38 years, based on 323 students. (2) Fifty-three and two-tenths per cent of the two-year students made the median score or above on the test, whereas 48.6 per cent of the other group made the median score or above, but it must be remembered in this instance that the college curriculum included practically three times as many students as did the two-year group.

In the fundamental divisions of the test the comparisons of the groups are as follows:

(1) On punctuation the average score made by the two-year group was 20.1 out of a possible thirty points; the average score for the college group on the same feature was 20.3.

(2) On capitalization the two-year students made an average score of 7.1 points out of ten, and the college students scored 7.0 points as an average.

(3) On sentence structure and diction the two-year students had an average score of 19.3 out of a possible thirty, and the college students averaged 19.8 points.

(4) On the recognition of the complete sentence the average score for the two-year group was 11.7 out of a possible fifteen points, and 12.1 was

the average score for the college group.

(5) On verb usage the average score for the two-year students was 11.8 out of a possible fifteen points, while the average for the college students was 11.7.

(6) On grammatical construction the two-year students scored on the average 29.3 points out of a possible fifty, and the college students averaged 29.5 points.

In all cases stated above, it must be recalled that there were almost three times as many college students as two-year students.

This statistical material should enable the college to deal more wisely with these two-year students. It should empower the college to assist in conserving to a better advantage the students' capacities for individual development. To say the least, it places these two-year students on an equal basis with all other entering students. Besides, it puts the college in the position of an intelligent adviser as far as the work for these students in English fundamentals is concerned.

In this connection it is not the intention of the English Department at Indiana State Teachers College to place the major emphasis in the courses in freshman English upon the mechanics of discourse when such emphasis is not in keeping with the needs of the class involved; nevertheless the department does feel that such research studies on the problems involved in the teaching of Eng-

lish, as were completed by R. W. Brown on *How the French Boy Learns to Write*, and by C. H. Ward on the question of *fluency first* versus *accuracy first* are not entirely void of valuable data on the question of how constructive English is being presented in widely extended areas throughout the United States.

From these surveys, therefore, the following quotations are submitted to help objectify our idea of what constitutes a reasonable procedure in the presentation of freshman English in a teachers college, provided the situation involves a previous classification of the students on a more or less accurate and standardized basis:

"If it is true that a French boy, not superior in intelligence and not aided by some sort of magic in his native language, writes with sharper accuracy of thought, surer and more intelligent freedom, then the reason for this superiority must be in the kind of training he receives."

"All would admit that themes must be developed in as interesting a way as is possible for each pupil's power; all believe that the subjects assigned for development should be interesting in themselves; all of the teachers encourage, and so far as they conscientiously can they give credit for, entertaining composition. But they know that fluency first breeds slovenliness, tends to produce ineffective and unpleasant themes."

<sup>1</sup>Brown, R. W., "How the French Boy Learns to Write," *Education*, October, 1917, p. 106.

<sup>2</sup>Ward, C. H., "Fluency First," *Education*, October, 1917, p. 109.



## Can the Ability to Appreciate Music be Measured Objectively?

Lowell M. Tilson  
Head, Department of Music  
Indiana State Teachers College

At the close of one of the chapters in his book on secondary education, Dr. Aubrey A. Douglass, asks this question, "Can the ability to appreciate literature, music, or art be measured objectively?" He makes no attempt to answer the question, but gives it as a topic for further investigation on the part of those who may read the book. The question is discussed here only as it is applied to the appreciation of music.

In the first place, ability when applied to music appreciation is a very different thing from ability which comes as a result of general intelligence. It is true, of course, that the ability to appreciate music depends upon one's native capacity in music just as ability in some other things depends upon one's general intelligence, but in the latter case the ability would be measured through performance, while in the former case this is not necessarily true. That is, it is possible to measure native capacity in music independently of any training; but in the measurement of native capacity in intelligence, reliance must be had, to some extent, upon the training and experience of the individual.

In the second place, the question as stated, refers to the measuring of the ability to appreciate, and not to the measuring of accomplishment in music appreciation. That would indeed be a very different question, and

one that would be more difficult to answer.

Leaders in the field of public school music education agree that the aim in both elementary and secondary schools should be "to enable children to have an appreciation of music and to take part in its performance." If this aim is accepted (and it certainly is) the meaning of appreciation as applied to music must be stated. Appreciation does not appear to be a very different thing when applied to music than when applied to literature. If this is true then children shall not be expected really to appreciate music until they know something about it and have some power in interpreting it from the printed symbol. This last statement is at variance with the beliefs and practices of many music teachers in the matter of teaching appreciation. It is the practice, not only in the elementary schools and high schools, but also in many colleges and universities, to teach music appreciation to classes the members of which are absolutely illiterate musically. Such a class might enjoy some kinds of music just as an illiterate person would enjoy a story that was read to him or a play that he might see, but it certainly would not be called appreciation in either case. It is as necessary for a child to be able to read music before he can properly appreciate it, as it is for him to be able to

read the language in which a piece of literature is written before he can properly appreciate that literature. The person who reads music has a very different feeling for each of the tones of which compositions are made than does the person who does not possess this ability. Therefore, the first concern of those engaged in the music work in the public schools should be to lead the children gradually toward an ability to read this language of tone and rhythm which will help them to learn to appreciate it.

The custom of teaching music appreciation to musical illiterates has been encouraged and promoted by the people who manufacture and sell talking machines and records. It is to their interest that music appreciation be taught to as many pupils as possible, and they, more than any other group of people, are responsible for much of the music teaching in the schools today which does not register. They are responsible for the idea of having children listen to the rustle of the wings of fairies, the dancing of elves, the galloping of horses, et cetera, in the music to which they are compelled to listen. In most instances the composers of such music would be very much surprised to find that their pieces contained these things at all. Of course, talking machines have their place in school work, but they should not be permitted to take the place of real music education in the schools.

To summarize, it should be said that the child appreciates music to the fullest extent when he is taking part in its performance and that he cannot take part intelligently if

he is musically illiterate. He can take part "parrot fashion" only in the simplest forms of music. Therefore, since there is very little learning (even in appreciation) unless the child is taking part, he must become skilled enough to take part in the more complicated forms before he can appreciate them, and this comes about only by his learning to read. Merely passively listening will never enable the musically unlearned to appreciate.

In order that one may be able to learn to read music he must have certain native capacities, and strange to say, these capacities have no relation to intelligence, although intelligence, too, is necessary. A few of the capacities that must be possessed by the person who would learn to read music well are the sense of pitch differentiation, the sense of intensity, the sense of time, the sense of consonance, and the sense of tonal memory. One could be very keen in some of these and weak in others, in which event one would be but poorly equipped for the task of music reading, or even for taking part in musical performance by rote. In other words, these capacities are not related to each other to any great extent. While some are more fundamental than others, yet they are all indispensable characteristics of the general capacity that is necessary before an individual may acquire the ability to take part in musical performance, and thereby learn to appreciate music.

While it is not in the province of this paper to go into a detailed description of these various capacities, it may be said that, on account of

the fact that they have a physical basis, it is possible to measure them very accurately. For instance, one's sense of pitch differentiation is dependent upon a physical structure in the ear, with which one is born. The individual comes into the world either with this structure tuned fairly well, or poorly, as the case may be, and regardless of what Watson (the behaviorist) says about the effect of environment upon special talent, no amount of training or experience will improve the native capacity. This capacity can be measured down to a fine point before any training is taken. It is only necessary for the person being tested to recognize which of two tones is the higher, and this requires no training and very little intelligence. Therefore, it is hardly true that the native capacity that is behind ability in music must be measured through performance, as is the case in the measurement of intelligence. Hence, the measurements of native capacity in music are much more accurate and reliable than those of intelligence.

It is possible to measure each of these native capacities just as accurately and reliably as is the case in the sense of pitch. When you have measured the capacity of an individual in the sense of intensity and time you have a rather true index to his talent in rhythm. The sense of consonance and the sense of tonal memory are phases of music talent that are only slightly less important, especially in the matter of music appreciation.

It should need no argument to prove that a person who is lacking, to any great extent, in one or more

of these measurable native capacities for taking part in music performance, would be incapable of appreciating such performance when given by others. Since it is known that there are many individuals who are rather sadly lacking in several of the musical capacities that are so necessary for either performance or appreciation, is it wise to require all students in secondary schools to study music? It is the practice in the Cincinnati high schools (the author understands) as well as in many other high schools over the country, to require all students to spend some time in the study of vocal music, with the notion that they will gain appreciation of music. A teachers college in Missouri requires every student who graduates from any course to take a course in music appreciation. In an investigation conducted by the National Research Council of Music Education on the subject of music in the junior high school in 1925, it was learned that more than half of the schools reporting require the study of vocal music by all students. Out of 295 schools reporting, 155 schools require all students in the ninth grade to study vocal music. Of course, if a person ever acquires the ability to appreciate music, that is the way in which it can be acquired; but are there not some students so poorly equipped in native capacity that it would be a waste of time and money to require them to take music. Many educators do not agree with this view. Only recently a member of the faculty of the University of Cincinnati said "you cannot possibly justify the teaching of many of the high school subjects to



every student, but music is one subject that every high school student should take because every one can learn to appreciate music." The fact is that there are as great individual differences in the matter of music talent as there are in intelligence. One person may be 200 times as keen in the sense of pitch differentiation as another. In such a wide scale of difference as this much certainly cannot be expected in the way of musical performance from those in the lowest quarter, and where there is no capacity for performance there is certainly none for appreciation. It is not necessary that one be proficient as a performer before one can appreciate, but one must at least possess the native capacity for performance, and develop it to a certain extent before real appreciation can take place.

If a person has a good enough score in the sense of pitch differentiation, for instance, so that his percentile rank would be as high as fifty, he would be as able to appreciate music as the average person, as far as that one phase of talent is concerned. If he was that good in the other phases he would be classed as average. However, in a high school of 500 students quite a number will be found whose average percentile rank in the five phases of talent mentioned will be fifteen or below. This might mean that such students could not tell the difference even if an instrument or singer performed a quarter step "off tune." In the department of music at the Indiana State Teachers College the usual enrollment of students who are studying to become supervisors of music is about

150. During the last five years it has been the custom at the Indiana State Teachers College to give all freshmen electing the music supervisor's course a very thorough music talent test, using the Seashore tests. These students are a self-selected group, having decided upon graduation from high school that they desire to become music supervisors. Since an entrance requirement of three years study of some instrument is demanded, these students are not without experience in musical performance. Each student in a group of 174 was given a thorough test in each of the five phases of talent and then the average of the five percentile ranks was taken for each student. The average of these averages for the entire group was 75 plus, or about 25 points higher than the average for the entire population. They ranged all the way from 100 down to 18. Of course, those with the lowest scores were asked to withdraw from the music department, because it is almost a certainty that the ones with low scores cannot meet the requirements for training. It is interesting to note that when the lowest quarter of these scores is taken, only three or four of the students involved are now either in the department or teaching. On the other hand, an inspection of the names of the students in the upper quarter shows that considerably more than three fourths of them have stayed on. Some are out teaching and some are still studying. In a few cases, students in this upper group have not been able to carry the work because of a low intelligence test rating. It is interesting to note, that in

(Continued on Page 86)

## The Financial Control of Extra-Curricular Activities

H. E. Moore, Principal  
Otter Creek High School  
North Terre Haute, Indiana

(This paper was read at the Regional Principals' Conference held at the Gerstmeier Technical High School, Terre Haute, Indiana, December 9, 1930.)

### Fellow Workers:

The extra-curricular program has become one of the largest phases of our school work. Whatever may be its value or justification is not a question at this time, but the control of the funds raised by this extensive program is a most vital one.

As principals and those interested in the work of school principals, it is unnecessary to say that this official, as the head of the school, is responsible for all that goes on within the school and one of his largest responsibilities is his supervision and control over the funds raised by the extra-curricular program. His time is too valuable to spend with an unbusiness-like system and the present demand for efficiency in educational affairs, together with the necessity for a closer and more effective organization of extra-curricular activities, has brought about a most sensible demand that these activities and their finances be handled with sound business principles. The continuity and permanence of this program of activities depends in no small way upon its financial support and control.

To give some idea of the size and range of this problem, let us note a recent study<sup>1</sup> on the subject. Four

hundred high schools with enrollments varying from thirty to four thousand seven hundred were studied. Of this number, thirty-six per cent had enrollments less than five hundred; twenty-eight per cent had enrollments from five hundred to one thousand; and thirty-six per cent had enrollments of more than one thousand. Two hundred and sixty-eight of these four hundred high schools could furnish accurate data on the amount of money handled. These amounts ranged from \$300 to \$25,000, the median amount being about \$4,000. This median amount, compared with the average enrollment of the schools studied, showed that six to seven dollars per pupil per year is spent in the average high school for its extra-curricular program. This will give us some figure for comparison with our own schools and using this average as a multiplier we can get some idea as to the amount of money the extra-curricular program costs in our own school if we do not already know.

Before launching into a discussion of methods of handling funds we should probably go further to say that the very best methods of handling money are the least that we should expect our students to participate in or to witness, as witnessing good business organization will surely do its part in teaching the student

<sup>1</sup>McKown, Harry C., and Horner, Meyers, B., 25th Yearbook National Society for Study of Education, Part II, Ch. X, pp. 115-116.

to use good methods in his own financial affairs.

The common methods of handling extra-curricular funds may be studied under two types, first the decentralized and second the centralized.\*

The decentralized is by far the commonest method in use, wherein each organization is independent so far as the others are concerned in financial matters, each being required to stand on its own ground and stand or fall upon its own financial program. About ninety per cent of the schools reporting on one study had this system.<sup>1</sup> Certainly the system is most common because as new organizations develop they take on their own financial organization and a semi-independence of any control except an occasional audit and such control as the administration may have through faculty sponsors of different organizations. Offering adverse criticism on this type of financial control will undoubtedly cause some feeling in the minds of some of my hearers, but I am only offering it after checking some of the best opinion in the control of the extra-curricular program and my own experience with both the centralized and decentralized methods of handling funds. Certainly the decentralized system has little argument in its favor; the most popular one is that the centralized scheme takes the initiative away from the students, one that has little merit if the centralized plan is properly organized. The decentralized scheme is as if a department store had separate treasurers

and separate bank accounts for each department and no central manager. We are not interested, however, in adversely criticising this decentralized type, but rather in presenting the advantages of the centralized type of control which will save the administrator time, give the school a business-like system, and aid in the general development of the whole school program.

There are four common types of centralized control of funds as follows:<sup>2</sup>

1. The Central Treasurer type.
2. The Central Treasurer type plus the Finance Committee.
3. The Commercial Department type.
4. The School Bank type.

Under the first type a central treasurer is selected—it may be the principal, a faculty representative, or a clerk in the administrative office—who will keep the records of each organization, deposit their moneys in a single fund and write all checks upon proper order from the different organizations. This form does not displace the officers of each organization, but only serves as a check and an aid for them. Besides keeping a record of each organization and a composite of them all, the treasurer should prepare periodic financial reports. This individual should have regular office hours, be easily available, and probably be given some time for this work, depending upon the size of the school. This central treasurer should be bonded for the largest amount that will be in his hands at any one time, the cost of the

<sup>1</sup>McKown, Harry C., *Extra-Curricular Activities*. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927 p. 557.)

<sup>2</sup>Meyer, Harold D., and Eddeman, Samuel McKee, *Financing Extra-Curricular Activities*. (New York: A. S. Barnes Company, 1928. Ch. 3, p. 39.)

<sup>3</sup>McKown, Harry C., *Op. Cit.*, pp. 557-568.  
Meyer, Harold D., and Eddeman, Samuel McKee, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 41-70.



bond being borne from activities funds. This first plan is well adapted to the smaller schools.

The second type of centralized control is much like the first except that it provides in addition a finance committee which aids the central treasurer in important decisions, helps budget the moneys, determines matters of policy, and advises the administrator and the central treasurer upon other than regular expenditures. It should probably be an appointive body composed of both faculty members and students, with the principal and central treasurer members ex-officio. This scheme is probably fitted to the average to large school.

The third type is the commercial department type wherein the actual clerical and bookkeeping work is done by the students of the business department under the supervision of the central treasurer, who should probably, in this circumstance, be a member of the business department. One readily sees its value in giving actual business experience to the students. It is adaptable to any school with a capable business department.

The fourth type is the school bank type—wherein a bank is organized within the school which takes organization as well as individual accounts. One immediately sees its value in that it gives a great deal of practical experience to students. It provides for any amount of expansion and, if worked in cooperation with a local bank, offers great possibilities which we do not have time to go into at present.

So far as bookkeeping forms are concerned, they naturally will vary with the adaptation to different

schools, but certain common forms will undoubtedly be found necessary in the simplest organization; they are:

a. The central treasurer's receipt—necessary when an organization deposits money with the central treasurer.

b. A pay order—necessary when an organization withdraws money for any purpose.

c. Treasurer's check—necessary for payment—should be a special check easily identified.

d. A general activities sheet that will show the condition of the combined funds at any time.

e. A special activities sheet that will show the condition of a particular activity at any one time.

f. An activities report that will show returns from—say each ball game, each play, et cetera.

g. A requisition blank—used in making purchases and necessary under a centralized system for proper payment of any bill.

This system of forms may be expanded or contracted to fit any need. Careful attention and planning are necessary if the system is to work well, the size of forms, uniformity, binders, et cetera, being among the things that should have careful thought.

I am sure if one examines these centralized types of control that their advantages are apparent—in accuracy, time saving, better publicity, and business method. However, no system should be taken over bodily by any school. A serious consideration of the local situation, its conditions, possibilities, and limitations must precede any attempt to fit a system into it. Building a careful, accurate,

business-like procedure takes time. The business system finally adopted should afford reasonable protection

to all concerned, organizations, school officials, and other interested parties.

#### THE HUMAN SHAKESPEARE OF THE SONNETS

(Continued from Page 72)  
at great length pointing out the human qualities that appear everywhere in the sonnets. But, in surveying these examples, it is necessary to remember that, since he was a poet, his emotions, though the same in kind, were far greater in degree of intensity than those of the majority of mankind.

Finally then, if Shakespeare did

not "unlock his heart" in the sense of actually revealing some of the facts of his life, he did give evidence in the sonnets of his intensely human spirit—a spirit intimately acquainted through vital experience with all the varying emotions of the heart of man, a spirit that, if tempted and at one time somewhat scarred by human love, was on the whole tempered and chastened by that same passion.

#### CAN THE ABILITY TO APPRECIATE MUSIC BE MEASURED OBJECTIVELY?

(Continued from Page 82)  
166 cases for which both music talent scores and intelligence scores are available, the correlation was .0677, or practically zero.

If in such a select group as the one just mentioned, there is such a variation in talent, it is sure to be much greater in a non-select group such as the high school student body. Of course, the scores of the lower quarter of such a student body would run very low. Many would be totally unable to make any progress in either the performance or appreciation of music. It is not necessary to wait until the pupil enters high school for these tests, for reliable prediction may be made based upon tests given as early as the fifth grade. By the time the student reaches high

school age his teacher may know rather definitely whether or not it is worth while for him to spend any time in the music classes. If he does not have talent enough to enable him to take part in the performance of music, it is extremely doubtful if he could ever learn to appreciate it when others were performing.

Since the ability to appreciate music is so dependent upon taking part in performance, and taking part in performance is dependent upon native capacity which is measureable, it is evident that such ability (or the capacity to develop it) can be measured. Since the results of these measurements can be tabulated independent of the tester's opinions, it is possible to measure such ability objectively.

## How College Freshmen Spend Their Time and Its Relation to Failure in the Case of Twenty-Five Mem- bers of the Class

Frank A. Beu

Professor of Psychology and Education  
Eastern Illinois State Teachers College  
Charleston, Illinois

More students fail during their freshman year than in any other year in their college career, as has been shown by many surveys made in recent years. Mr. Hugh Caldwell thinks that of the 100,000 freshmen enrolled in college every fall about 32,000 are missing from the college files at the end of the year for various reasons.<sup>1</sup> Harvard University drops from eighteen to twenty-five per cent of its freshmen every year.<sup>2</sup>

There are many other reasons why college students fail, such as too much work, lack of money, worry, home conditions, poor living conditions, poor health, lack of preparation, lack of ability, poor teachers, lack of knowledge as to how to study, and a poor time sense.

The members of the psychology department of the Eastern Illinois State Teachers College were of the opinion that many of the students at that institution received low grades because they did not know how to spend their time to the best advantage. In March, 1929, the four teachers of psychology asked their

students to keep an accurate record of how they divided their time in the various college and outside activities for the five-day school week. The object of having the students keep this record was to determine, if possible, how much of their time was spent in an unprofitable manner.

In order to obtain some uniformity as to the record kept, a form having a list of eleven activities, in reality about twenty as the last item was a grouping of many separate items under one heading, was given to 406 freshmen. Each student was asked to indicate the number of minutes or hours he usually spent in an activity. The students were asked not to sign their names to these forms as it was thought they would be more likely to give accurate information if they thought their grades would not be affected by the report. They were asked to indicate sex.

The activity blank was filled out by 396 students, there being only ten students failing to return the same. Of course, some readers will form a priori judgment and think that the data are not of much value as there was no way of checking their reliability. That may be a good criticism, but it was thought there was enough

<sup>1</sup>"Student Mortality," *School and Society*, December, 1925, Vol. XXII, p. 342.

<sup>2</sup>Lowell, Lawrence A., "The College Student," *School and Society*, May 28, 1927, Vol. XXV, p. 618.



evidence of their being fairly accurate due to the fact that the distribution of time spent by the boys and girls in the different activities was similar in the activities where such similarity would be expected and varied most in the activities where such variation would be expected.

amount of time for boys and girls. Also, in respect to variations, they were found to be in those activities generally assumed, namely, in physical education, toilet, and working for pay. The boys took more time for physical education and working for pay, whereas the girls devoted more

TABLE I

THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF MINUTES PER DAY DEVOTED TO THE VARIOUS ACTIVITIES IN THE FIVE-DAY SCHOOL WEEK BY BOYS AND GIRLS

Activity	How 134 Boys Spent Their Time	How 262 Girls Spent Their Time
1. Sleep	450	460
2. Meals	60	60
3. Toilet	60	90
4. Study and recitation	420	435
5. Work at home	60	90
6. Motion pictures	15	15
7. Club work	15	15
8. Physical education	30	15
9. Work for pay	60	30
10. Dances, parties, etc.	30	30
11. Other activities	180	180

The distribution tables show a close correlation in such activities as study, sleep, and meals in which people in general agree they would expect approximately the same

time to their toilet.

According to Table I, it can be seen that the boys and girls reported the same amount of time for meals, motion pictures, club work, dances,

TABLE II

THE MINIMUM, THE AVERAGE, AND THE MAXIMUM AMOUNT OF TIME DEVOTED TO EACH ACTIVITY PER DAY FOR THE FIVE-DAY SCHOOL WEEK BY BOTH BOYS AND GIRLS

Activity	Boys			Girls		
	Min.	Av.	Max.	Min.	Av.	Max.
1. Sleep	360	450	620	360	460	660
2. Meals	30	60	195	15	60	165
3. Study and recitation	195	420	780	150	435	870
4. Work at home	0	60	195	0	90	215
5. Motion pictures	0	15	120	0	15	125
6. Toilet	15	60	105	15	60	120
7. Club work	0	15	55	0	15	60
8. Physical education	0	30	150	0	15	105
9. Work for pay	0	60	300	0	15	240
10. Dances, parties, etc.	0	30	90	0	30	80
11. Other activities	0	180	405	0	180	495

and other activities. In all the other items they varied from ten to thirty minutes.

It can be seen from Table II that the minimum time of the boys is forty-five minutes more than that of the girls, but the average for the boys is fifteen minutes less and the maximum is ninety minutes less in the case of study and recitation. Boys spend more time in earning money and the girls spend more time on their toilet.

with twenty-five students who had received two or more failing grades the previous term. A good correlation between waste of time and failing grades was found in this instance, the data being collected through personal interviews with the students. For purposes of comparison, four cases will be cited—two failing students, one boy and one girl; and two "A" students, one boy and one girl.

Each one of the four students con-

TABLE III

THE PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND GIRLS DEVOTING EXCESSIVELY LARGE OR SMALL AMOUNTS OF TIME TO THE DIFFERENT ACTIVITIES\*

Activity	Per cent of students devoting excessively small amount of time		Per cent of students devoting excessively large amount of time	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1. Sleep	9.8	8.7	1.6	2.0
2. Meals	2.3	3.4	.2	0.0
3. Toilet	11.0	7.0	1.4	8.4
4. Study and recitation	8.1	6.2	5.9	9.1
5. Work at home	0.0	0.0	3.8	2.6
6. Motion pictures	14.1	11.6	3.7	8.5
7. Club work	3.0	0.0	.8	3.4
8. Physical education	13.4	17.2	10.8	3.9
9. Work for pay	0.0	0.0	5.3	4.7
10. Dances, parties, etc.	0.0	6.1	7.3	13.3
11. Other activities	4.7	6.2	6.8	7.7

A study of Table III reveals that not many students spend excessively large or small amounts of time in respect to sleep, work at home, club work; but there were more than twice as many girls spending too much time on dances and parties as there were not spending enough time in that manner.

The second part of this study dealt

considered was carrying the regular load of four subjects. At the end of the term one boy and one girl made four A's, while the other two had five F's, out of a possible eight grades, two D's, and one C. The two who made the failing grades had lower I. Q.'s than the other two; their scores on the Haggerty Reading Test and on the Cross English Test were lower than those of the "A" students, with the exception of one case, which was slightly higher on the Haggerty Reading Test.

(Continued on Page 94)

\*The excessively small or large amounts of time were decided according to a composite table of studies of the same kind as this in this paper. The composite table gave the time allotments in minutes per day as follows: sleep—510; meals—90; toilet—60; parties—30; club work—15; work for pay—30; physical education—30; other activities—210; class and study—420; motion pictures—15.

## PERSONALITY TRAITS

(Continued from Page 70)

from someone else when confronted with a difficulty. Brings in outside material for classes. Recognizes a new situation as a challenge. Finds new ways of doing things. In group meetings proposes new ideas, instead of noting the defects of others' proposals. In a classroom is one who contributes, not one who is "called on." Rises to an emergency. Et cetera.

Speech (voice, language habits, use of English). Tone quality is pleasant, not nasal, hoarse or harsh. Enunciates distinctly. Does not use peculiarities of speech, such as "see," "alright," "listen," et cetera.

Instructor and class always understand her first statement of a comment or a question. Has no defect in speech.

Social Adaptability (social background, personal address, refinement). Manner is friendly in meeting people and in dealing with them. Is not harsh, antagonistic, nor "mushy." Is not pedantic. Is not embarrassed nor "gawky" in company. Gives others a chance to talk.

Note: This sheet should be kept for use at the end of each term. It is not necessary to mark every one of the seven traits for each student. In the case of any student, mark only those traits about which you have a definite opinion.

## INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

## Personality Rating Sheet

.....Term, 19..... Department Course No.....

Student's Name ..... Class: Fresh. Soph. Jr. Sr.

This personality report gives the instructor an opportunity to register his opinion regarding the student's personal qualifications. Suppose you have before you 100 unselected State Teachers College students. In qualities of personality where will this student rank? This mark is not supposed to be scientifically accurate; it is an expression of the teacher's opinion. The quarter mark (on the regular report sheet indicates achievement in scholarship. Check below.

General Estimate of Student's Personal Qualifications	Low Quarter 25%	Middle Half 50%	High Quarter 25%
1. Personal appearance (Attractiveness, poise, posture, neatness)			
2. Enthusiasm (Animation, forcefulness, vitality)			
3. Trustworthiness (Dependability, reliability)			
4. Good judgment (Openmindedness, fairness, sincerity)			
5. Resourcefulness (Initiative, originality, individuality)			
6. Speech (Voice, language, habits, use of English)			
7. Social adaptability (Social background, personal address, refinement)			

Date.....

Instructor.....

This report is to be filed in the Registrar's office at the end of the eleventh week.

## Factors in School Attendance

Lorin C. Halberstadt

Dean of Boys

Gerstmeyer Technical High School,  
Terre Haute, Indiana

One of the measures of the efficiency of a school system is how well the pupils attend school. Schools are created for them and if they fail to attend, that community has lost a created opportunity for their instruction to the degree to which the pupils have failed to attend. Compulsory attendance laws are necessary and in many states are really enforced. Yet there are many factors operating against school attendance. It is not the purpose of this article to enumerate all of these factors (perhaps some are still unknown) but to select three factors and reveal some investigations concerning them. The three factors are teachers' marks, intelligence, and age.

### Teachers' Marks

Four groups of high school students over a two year period of time were selected. The plan was to divide the students into the following groups:

The A group students, absent three days or less.

The B group students, absent four to eleven days.

The C group students, absent twelve to twenty-one days.

The D group students, absent more than twenty-one days.

Tardiness and attendance were reduced to a common term by counting three times tardy as equivalent to one day's absence. Also, the teach-

ers' marks were equated as to quality and quantity and thereby to a common term. In doing this, the number of periods per week for each subject was taken and multiplied according to the grade given, by the following:

A = 4 points

B = 3 points

C = 2 points

D = 1 point

E = 0 points

The sum of the total weekly periods of work for the semester was secured as well as the sum of the points earned as to quality and quantity. The latter was divided by the former, giving a number that can be used in the tables or can be translated into a grade.

TABLE I  
COMPARISON OF GROUPS ACCORD-  
ING TO AVERAGE OF  
TEACHERS' MARKS

Group	Number	Average Marks
A	75	2.43
B	99	2.10
C	59	1.84
D	56	1.59
Total	289	

These facts reveal that pupils with regular attendance records ranked higher according to average of teachers' marks than the pupils with irregular attendance records. It al-



so reveals that the C group (11 to 21 days absent) did not do average work.

In order to test this farther a computation of correlation, using the product moment method, between days absent and average of teachers' marks was made. The computation will be omitted.<sup>1</sup> The correlation obtained was a  $-.347$ . The probable error was  $\pm$  or  $-.03$ . The fact revealed is that there is a negative relationship between average of teachers' marks and days absent from school. To be absent from school means a penalty to pay in teachers' marks.

#### Intelligence

The same groups studied in relation to school attendance and teachers' marks were also studied as to their intelligence and school attendance. The Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability Higher Examination Form A for high school and college and the Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Test Revised were used. The average I. Q.'s of the two tests were used.

TABLE II  
QUARTILE POINTS OF THE I. Q.'s OF  
THE FOUR ATTENDANCE GROUPS

Groups	Lower Quartile	Median	Upper Quartile
A	87	97	104
B	86	95	102
C	99	95	100
D	91	98	103

The plan of this study was two-fold:

1. To make percentile graphs of the four attendance groups (A, B, C, D) to show their ranking according to intelligence and attendance.

2. To get a correlation of the above groups between number of days absent and intelligence.

Again omitting the computation only the summary will be given.

A comparison of the groups by medians, lower and upper quartiles, reveals that there is little relation or none between intelligence and days absent. The poorest group is slightly higher, except in the upper quartile. However, the two better groups do show a slight tendency toward a relationship in the upper quartile as compared to the two poorer groups. This may be due to the fact that school attendance helped them to score higher on the tests than the other groups.

A computation of correlation of in intelligence and days absent was made by the product moment method. A negative correlation of  $-.0522$  was found with a probable error of  $\pm$  or  $-.039$ . The results here indicate that there is no relationship between days absent from school and intelligence as measured by tests.<sup>2</sup>

#### Age

In order to study age as a factor in school attendance, the spring semester was selected and a table was made.

Table III is read as follows: At the age of 18, thirty-four students furnished seven per cent of the absence cases which was seven per cent of the total half days absent from school.

A mere glance at this table locates the sore spot. The ages of fifteen and sixteen supply just fifty per cent of the total half days absent from school. They supply forty-nine per

<sup>1</sup>Halberstadt, L. C., Unpublished Master's Thesis, Indiana University, Bloomington.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid, p. 44.

cent of the number of cases of absence. Since the State places the line at sixteen, there must be a damming up process going on—a rebellion which is not eased until the age of sixteen is passed. Age fourteen

school only a short time. This group is made up of all ages and would affect the other figures but little.

Some of the conclusions of this study are:

1. The critical age of attendance

TABLE III  
SUMMARY OF AGE DATA

Age	Number of Cases	Per Cent of Cases	Total Half Days Absences	Per Cent of Half Days Absences
13	6	.01	102	.02
14	47	.09	460	.07
15	110	.22	1675	.26
16	134	.27	1573	.24
17	75	.15	729	.11
18	34	.07	481	.07
19	17	.03	358	.06
20	7	.01	42	.007
21	3	.01	43	.007
More than 21	5	.01	11	.002
Miscellaneous	65	.13	951	.15
Totals	503	1.00	6425	.99 +

shows only a tendency in that piling up process. This explains much of our truancy, false excuses, and remaining out of school on trivial excuses.

The second outstanding thing about this table is that except in a few cases, the per cent of cases does not vary far from the per cent of total half days absent.

The third outstanding fact is that above the age of sixteen we find twenty-eight per cent of the cases with twenty-five per cent of the total half days absences. A common idea is that the older the boy the more liable he is to make a bad record. This tends to prove that this is not the case. Evidently they are sobered more than the boy at fifteen or six-

teen and see more value in school.

The miscellaneous group consists of those whose ages were not recorded in the register and we did not take the time to look them up. Also it contains some that quit and were in is fifteen and sixteen years of age.

2. There must be a resentment because they are forced to go until they are sixteen and feel this especially at these years as it deprives them of the chance to make some money. It is up to the school to sell itself to them.

3. The student who is older than sixteen is more serious and not as bad an offender as those of fifteen and sixteen years of age.

4. Boys fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen years of age contribute sixty-

four per cent of the cases with sixty-one per cent of the total half days absences.

5. The high school has more serious problems of attendance than any

other school because of the compulsory age law.

6. There were fifty-seven cases of perfect attendance. This is eleven and three-tenths per cent of the total number of boys registered.

## New College of Education

Butler University formally accepted the Teachers College of Indianapolis as a part of the university and formed with it and the Department of Education the new College of Education at ceremonies held December 4 at 3 o'clock in the Butler gymnasium.

At the same time, Dr. William Leeds Richardson was inducted as dean of the new college, by Dr.

Robert J. Aley, president of the university.

Mrs. Evans Woollen, president of the board of trustees of the Teachers College of Indianapolis, officially presented the college to Butler University. Hilton U. Brown, president of the university board of directors, accepted the college on behalf of the university.

### HOW COLLEGE FRESHMEN SPEND THEIR TIME AND ITS RELATION TO FAILURE IN THE CASE OF TWENTY-FIVE MEMBERS OF THE CLASS

(Continued from Page 89)

A comparison of the way each student spent his time shows what would be expected—the failing students loafed more than the “A” students, and gave more time to activities other than those of the classroom. The students who made four A’s studied a great deal and did not always get the proper amount of sleep. Very little of their time was taken up with frivolous activities. However, one of the students who failed—the one who made three F’s—worked for her board and this took about four hours of each day’s time;

she did additional work for money, also. All of the students considered did some work outside of school hours for money.

No attempts were made to draw any conclusions in this study, but a great improvement in the work of the students with whom conferences were held was noticed as well as improvement in the way they spent their time. One of the big advantages to idlers is to actually have them write down an accurate record of what they do and then have them see what the “A” students do with their time.

## Around the Reading Table

**Learning a New Language** by Claude C. Crawford, Professor of Education, University of Southern California, and Edna Mable Leitzell, Chairman of the Spanish Department, Horace Mann Junior High School, Los Angeles. (Los Angeles, California: C. C. Crawford. 1930. Pp. xii, 242.)

The experienced language teacher will find little that is new in the pages of this book. However, an estimate of its value must be based upon its purpose, as indicated by the title. It is not primarily a teachers' manual, although it will prove helpful to many an inexperienced one. Nor is it the vehicle for any pet theory. It is intended as a broad and yet thorough presentation of the psychology and methods of language learning, from the standpoint of the would-be learner. Unlike some other recent books on the subject, it is couched in non-technical language, and the argument is lucid, straightforward, and thorough. Both the direct method enthusiast and the conservative advocate of translation will find comfort in it, though it must be said that the authors, in accordance with present-day tendencies, make out a better case for the direct method. Both the advantages and disadvantages of these two types of teaching are clearly shown.

Dr. Crawford has ably expounded the theory of the language learning process. The book is in part a result of Miss Leitzell's experiments in language classes, in connection with her Master's thesis. In addition, many teachers were interviewed as to their classroom experiences and observations. The result is a comprehensive treatment of the various problems that face the learner of languages.

—Harry V. Wann,  
Professor of Romance Languages.

**The Teacher in the New School** by Martha Peck Porter, Director of Elementary Education, Public Schools, Roslyn, New York (recently of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University.) (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company. 1930. Pp. xi, 312.)

This book is a description of a year's work in the third grade of the Lincoln School. The "New School" may be said to be one in which "procedures are based on children's interests, their individual differences, their natural ways of learning through activity, and their relations to society."

Miss Porter first gives the criteria which served as the basis for the selection of the units of work for the year. She then describes in detail the techniques which were used in starting the activity, in developing study habits, and in relating the intellectual interests to the skills and creative work. The results of the year's work are evaluated. Of particular interest, is the way in which personality traits were improved. The last chapter shows how this method may be adapted in the public schools.

The book is very readable. It is of value because the techniques are useful in any grade and because the descriptions of the procedures are full enough to guide a teacher who is interested in teaching in the "New School."

—Mary D. Reed,  
Director of Primary Education.

**Supervising Extra-Curricular Activities in the American Secondary School** by Paul W. Terry, Professor of Education, University of Alabama. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1930. Pp. xi, 417.)

While many books have been written in the field of extra-curricular activities during the last five years this book by Paul W. Terry is a distinct contribution in content, organization, concreteness of practices, clear presentation, and point of view, particularly from the administrative and supervisory angles.

In order to indicate the breadth and importance of the problems, the table of contents will be given

in detail with the hope that high school principals will realize the value of this book.

### Part I. Historical and Theoretical Backgrounds

#### Chapter

1. The Origin and Growth of Student Activities.
2. Education and Citizenship in Modern Society.
3. The Management of Organized Groups.
4. The School as a Laboratory for Training in Citizenship.
5. Teaching the Practical Arts of Citizenship.

### Part II Student Participation in the Government of the School

6. Types of Student Government.
7. The Officers of Student Organizations.
8. The Activities and Legal Processes of Student Government.
9. Political Units of Student Government.

### Part III. Important Types of Student Organizations

10. The Honor Society and its Development.
11. Problems of the Honor Society.
12. The School Publications.
13. Major Voluntary Organizations: Athletics, Dramatics, Music, and Forensics.
14. School Clubs.
15. Fraternities and Sororities in the High School.

### Part IV. Problems of Organization and Supervision

16. The Participation of Pupils.
17. The Control of Participation.
18. General Principles of Organization.
19. The Finances of Student Organizations.
20. Cooperation of the Teacher Adviser.
21. The Supervision of Student Activities.
22. Special Problems of Supervision.
23. A Program of Training in the Civic Arts.

#### Index.

Numerous tables, concrete illustrations of successful practices in different high schools throughout the United States, extensive and recent book and periodical bibliographies make this book indispensable to teachers and administrators.

Throughout the book there is stress on the "practical aspects of Civic education with the school as the laboratory." To the supervision of extra-curricular activities, the future will bring the techniques that have been successful in the supervision of the curricular. In a clear, complete, and stimulating manner, Mr. Terry shows that "supervision will improve the work of student organizations." It is another illustration of Dewey's belief that "school is life."

—Helen Ederle,  
Assistant Professor of Education.

**Studying the Major Subjects** by Claude C. Crawford, Professor of Education, University of Southern California. (Los Angeles, California: C. C. Crawford. 1930. Pp. xiv, 384.)

Dr. Claude C. Crawford is becoming a prolific writer of books published by himself at the University of Southern California. One of his latest is "Studying the Major Subjects." This book is intended as "a text for how-to-study courses in high school and college, telling how to solve the main study problems involved in eleven major subjects of the curriculum." It is a companion volume to "The Technique of Study" by the same writer.

Except for a short introduction by Dean Lester B. Rogers, of the School of Education of the University of Southern California, and a short preface, the book begins at once with the consideration of the eleven subjects, literature, composition, foreign languages, mathematics, physics and chemistry, biology, history, other social studies,



the practical arts, physical education and health, and fine arts. Each chapter is composed of some dozen topics, each beginning with the word "how." In the treatment of each of these topics the author gives (1) a number of suggestions, which, by the way, are not intended as rules to be followed slavishly, and (2) a short assignment of exercises designed to assist the reader in mastering the content of the suggestions and in putting them into practice.

The book is psychologically arranged, and with the growing popularity of the wholesome tendency to stress how-to-study courses in high school and college, it should find a ready market, provided the educational world can be brought to know about it. There is still some question about the validity of Emerson's mousetrap - factory - in - the-woods theory.

—J. R. Shannon,  
Professor of Education.

**Workbook in Plane Geometry** by Hugh D. MacIntyre, Instructor in Mathematics, Charles E. Gorton High School, Yonkers, New York. (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company.

The major part of this Workbook consists of about thirty-five units of work arranged to follow very closely the conventional sequence of topics in plane geometry. The supplement contains: (1) a review of the construction problems studied in plane geometry, (2) a list of one hundred miscellaneous problems, (3) a general examination consisting of fifty computation problems, fifty completion exercises, and fifty true-false items, (4) College Entrance and Regents Examinations of the years 1926-1930, (5) a summary of symbols and formulae.

The general plan of each unit is the same. In most cases it consists of two pages. The first page has the title of the unit, a number of developmental exercises, and a summary in the form of statements for completion, and is intended for class discussion, its purpose being to prepare the pupil for the independent solution of similar problems; the second page of the unit starts with references which, in general, are statements of the theorems found in geometry textbooks, followed by problems closely related to the materials of the first three steps of the unit. Each unit is developed in four steps, discussion, general statements, references, and problems. The first three of these steps direct the activity of the teacher in developing the basic theorems either with or without a text in the hands of the pupil, in using the discussion for making clear the application of these theorems, in summarizing the pupils' understanding of the unit by means of the general statements. The fourth step furnishes practice material for the individual pupil in the form of original problems, the more difficult ones being marked.

The material of the book is so arranged that the discussions appear on the left-hand page and the problems on the right hand page. This, with the loose-leaf feature, makes it convenient for the pupil to insert his notes and solutions between the two pages.

This is primarily an exercise book and not a drill book. It contains between six and seven hundred problems aside from those used as developmental exercises. For the teacher who wishes to teach geometry without a text this workbook provides ample material for practice in the solution of originals. For the teacher who prefers to use a text this workbook has less value since a number of the recent texts contain sufficient material of this particular type.

—Inez Morris,  
Assistant Professor of Mathematics.

**Sonny Elephant** by Madge A. Bigham. (Boston: Little, Brown, and Company. 1930. Pp. xi, 205.)

A set of tests for the background of American the children to stumble over. A story that the children may use as a "sand table" subject for several weeks. The illustrations by Berta and Elmer Hader are the kind which appeal to small children.

**Educational Tests for Use in Institutions of Higher Learning** by J. S. Kinder, Head, Department of Education, Pennsylvania College for Women and Charles W. Odell, Assistant Director, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois. University of Illinois Bulletin Vol. XXVII, No. 49. (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois. 1930. Pp. 95.)

This bulletin, in the introduction, gives a discussion of standardized testing in institutions of higher learning and in the secondary schools. The second part of the bulletin is made up of "Tests Recommended for use in Institutions of Higher Learning." The last division of the bulletin is an excellent bibliography (annotated), which is followed by an Appendix containing the publishers' addresses.

**Developed Lessons in Psychology** by H. Meltzer, psychologist, psychiatric clinic, St. Louis, and lecturer in psychology, Washington University, and Edwin Maurice Banor, professor of psychology, Dartmouth College. (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1929. Pp. x, 199.)

This book is a tentative presentation of an attempt to apply some of psychology's own principles towards improving instruction in the first course in general psychology. The course has been tried experimentally for three years. The presentation is for the use of teachers and students who are interested in "changing college instruction to the extent of invalidating Professor James Harvey Robinson's well-known description of 'a college as a place where there is much teaching but no learning.'" It is more in the form of a syllabus for the course in general psychology than in the form of a text.

**Twentieth Century Workbook in American History** by Gale Smith, superintendent of schools, Renaissance, Indiana. (Fowler, Indiana: Benton Review Shop. 1930. Pp. 112.)

This workbook is presented as "an instructional device for the use of teachers of that subject. Its aim is to encourage the student to work independently and to think connectedly while learning the facts about the history of our country." It has been designed especially for high school students. The book is divided into seventeen units and a preliminary unit.

**Test Method Helps No. 3: Expressing Educational Measures as Percentile Ranks** by Francis C. Buros and Oscar K. Buros, Teachers College, Columbia University. (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company. 1930. Pp. 80.)

This pamphlet provides the needed, simplified method of expressing educational measures as percentiles. The authors describe a special (but easy) way of ranking scores of a group so that percentile ranks can be taken directly from a table included in the pamphlet.

**Bibliography of Research Study Subjects in Education for the School Year 1928-1929.** (Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Department of the Interior.)

The bibliography, prepared by Miss Edith A. Wright in the library division of the Office of Education, lists 3,065 investigations by 317 research agencies. It gives information on 217 doctors' theses, and 1,209 masters' theses. The theses tabulation represents a continuation of work done by Dr. Walter S. Monroe, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, from 1917 to 1927.

**Twentieth Century Study-Guide Tests on the Background of American History, Book One** by T. F. Denninger, social science department, River Rouge High School, River Rouge, Michigan. (Fowler, Indiana: Benton Review Shop. 1930. Pp. 36.)

A set of tests for the background of American history as taught in the elementary school. The purpose is "to aid the student in interpreting the material in the text." It is designed for but one semester's work.







